

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SEXUAL ORIENTATION
AND PERCEPTION OF SELF AND
GENDER IDEALS

By

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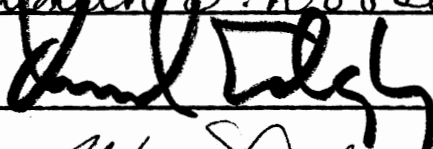


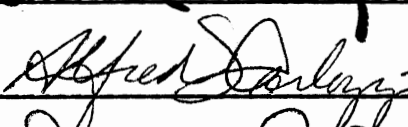
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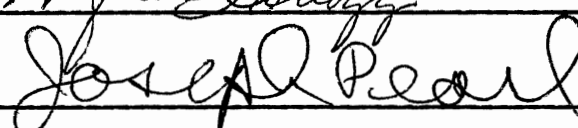
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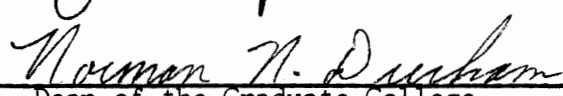


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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Over the past several years there have been numerous books and articles written on the changing roles of women and men away from the traditional sex-role stereotypes (e.g., Fasteau, 1975; Goldberg, 1980; Kanter, 1977; Rubin, 1983). Changing ideologies concerning sex-roles have created less distinction between expectations for men and women (Bernard, 1984). Whereas, previous traditional sex-role behavior for women and men tended to be much more defined.

Johnson (1963) characterizes traditional sex-role behaviors as being either "expressive" or "instrumental" (p. 320). Expressive behavior is usually associated with femininity, and denotes an orientation toward pleasing and receiving positive responses from other people. The affective or emotional aspects of relationships tend to be emphasized. Consequently, women are often viewed as what Rubin (1983) terms as "the emotional managers of the family" (p. 63). They provide nurturance to family members, and maintain the family system by interpreting one family member to another. Instrumental behavior, on the other hand, is usually associated with masculinity, and oriented toward pursuit of goals that transcend immediate situations. "In short, he [a man] is disposed to view the interaction as a means to an end. He must resist pressures to become affectively involved in the immediate situation itself" (Johnson, 1963, p. 321). While women tend to maintain the family system, men tend

to strive toward gaining a position for the family in society. More recently, however, due to changing ideologies, sex-roles of women and men are becoming less distinct (Bernard, 1984).

The time when the traditional sex-roles (as described above) were most strongly maintained, was following the Industrial Revolution and prior to the sharp upsurge of the women's movement in the 1960's and 1970's (Bernard, 1984). Researchers in the area of sex-roles primarily focused on how children developed a sex-role identity, maintaining that once developed that sex-role identity tends to persist into adulthood. Furthermore, it was maintained that in most cases men tend to develop an identity that is strongly masculine and women tend to develop an identity that is strongly feminine (e.g., Johnson, 1963).

The primary theories of earlier psychologists differ with the emphasis placed on particular variables or processes that occurred which produce the traditional sex-typed identity. Cook (1985) divides them up into Identification Theory, Social Learning Theory, and Cognitive-Developmental Theory.

Identification Theory emphasizes the close relationship with another significant individual and the duplication or imitation of that other individual (Mussen, 1969), or as Hall (1979) says about identification, it is "...the incorporation of the qualities of an external object, usually those of another person, into one's personality" (p. 74). It is this identification that is proposed as the primary agent of the sex-typing developmental process.

Social Learning Theory does not negate identification, but rather proposes that a person uses their cognitive processes when observing and imitating others, thereby forming a synthesis of characteristics that is

unique to that person (Mischel, 1966). As with Mussen, Mischel sees "identification" and "imitation" (p. 58) as being the same. However, Mischel adds cognitions and observations as being additionally important for a person, as well as, stressing the importance of reinforcement of certain behaviors (whether observed or experienced).

Cognitive-Developmental Theory (Kohlberg, 1966) suggests that people actively create their own sex-role identity through cognitive processes so that they can structure, adapt, and understand the world about them. The individual gains content from the environment, but the way it is structured depends upon cognitive maturation. Qualitative changes that occur with development create changes in perception of selves and others. Furthermore, learning and identification are of secondary importance in relation to development and the efforts to understand the environment.

The Feminist movement (in gaining momentum) was instrumental in causing a reevaluation of the assumptions underlying previous theories and associated research methodology (Cook, 1985). Therefore, there emerged new directions for research.

One assumption that creates problems is the Masculinity-Femininity continuum. Some researchers assert that Masculinity and Femininity are a single dimension, such that with increasing amounts of Masculinity one had decreasing amounts of Femininity, and vice-versa (Cook, 1985). However, Block (1973) challenged this thesis by suggesting that Masculinity and Femininity are actually two separate dimensions that are not mutually exclusive. In support of the assumptions proposed by Block, Bem (1974) developed a sex-role inventory to measure Masculinity and Femininity as two separate dimensions, as well as, to measure the extent that Masculine and Feminine characteristics blend together in

individuals.

Bem (1981) points out that it has been previously assumed that sex-typed behavior is the most positive outcome, but in actuality a blend of masculine and feminine traits may actually be more desirable. In her original theory, Bem (1974) hypothesizes that a person who has relatively equal amounts of Masculinity and Femininity (termed as androgynous) has a wider range of behaviors in social situations and therefore, is more adaptive. Consequently, sex-typed individuals (high in one dimension and low in the other) are less flexible in their behavior patterns across a wide variety of social situations because the person has a low amount of either expressive or instrumental characteristics. Therefore, Bem (1974, 1981) perceives that it is more desirable for a person to be androgynous rather than sex-typed.

Another assumption is that once developed, sex-role characteristics remain relatively stable over time (Cook, 1985). This premise, however, is challenged by a number of studies which are aimed at identifying factors affecting sex-role self description (e.g., Fein & Nuehring, 1981; Abrahams, Feldman, & Nash, 1978).

Moreover, most of the previous theories (such as been cited earlier) focus on children and their subsequent sex-role development. Whereas, more recent research is focusing on the study of sex-roles in adults rather than children (e.g., Bem & Lenny, 1976; Deutsch & Gilbert, 1976; Flaherty & Dusek, 1980).

Another, more recent theory, that has been developed to explain sex-role identity is the Gender Schema Theory (Bem, 1981). By taking the points from previous studies into consideration, it is hypothesized that individuals use cognitive structures, or schemata, to provide

organization and meaning to incoming stimuli. The schemata associated with gender create in an individual expectations of specific characteristics to be found in males and in females. Therefore, the gender schemata provide prescriptive standards or guides for masculine and feminine behavior. Though similar to some earlier theories, Bem's theory suggests that truly androgynous persons tend not to use sex-related connotations in processing their information as do sex-typed individuals, whether it be about self or others. One area of research developing from this theory is the effects of social changes on the perception of selves and personal standards or ideals for males and females (Deutsch & Gilbert, 1976; Garnets & Pleck, 1979).

Research by Scher (1984) which focuses on perception of self and ideals for men and women, suggests that women tend to view themselves, as well as their ideals, as androgynous. She attributes this finding to the increasing predominance of women's consciousness-raising and study groups. Furthermore, that women tend to see the incorporation of masculine or instrumental behaviors as being positive, which may be a result of society's general view that instrumental behavior is more desirable. The results for men, however, are different than the results for women. Scher finds that on the whole men tend to maintain an androgynous perception of self, but maintain a sex-typed perception of their ideals for males and females. This she interprets as meaning that men are not assimilating changes in their sex-role identity. Though androgyny may be seen as more socially acceptable, men still perceive the sex-typed roles as more personally desirable.

However, the premise that men are not assimilating changes in the sex-role identity becomes questionable when the variable of sexual

orientation is added. Other researchers (Spence & Helmreich, 1978; Robinson, Skeen, & Flake-Hobson, 1982) suggest that there is more of a balance of both masculine and feminine characteristics in homosexual males than there appears in heterosexual males.

Statement of the Problem

Just as heterosexual men may be having difficulty with changes in sex-roles, various researchers point out the added difficulties that homosexual individuals experience concerning incorporation of sex-roles into their own identities (Beane, 1981; Clark, 1977; deMonteflores & Schultz, 1978). According to Tripp (1976) one common resolution that homosexuals have concerning their own sex-role behavior is as follows:

One frequently seen balance is that of a man who keeps producing his own male qualities and still avoids the sharp edge of masculine eccentricity simply by not taking on the bravado stereotypes many heterosexuals find reinforcing. The result can be a somewhat gentle, often gentlemanly but still quite robust maleness. It may or may not appear "soft," depending on its details and what it is compared with. Not infrequently, it has the effect of seeming to raise the social level a notch, or of lowering the aggressive level by more than a notch (pp. 90-91).

This balance of both masculine and feminine characteristics is supported by later research (Robinson, Skeen, & Flake-Hobson, 1982; Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

DeMonteflores and Schultz (1978) point out that as acceptance of their own homosexuality occurs, the gay individual questions the rigid

sex-roles that have frequently been espoused by society in the past. This, they suggest, is due to social sex-roles and sexual preference being closely related. As Bem (1981) reports, our own society treats "...an exclusively heterosexual orientation as the sine qua non of adequate masculinity and femininity" (p. 361). Consequently, homosexual people have an added motivation to maintain ideals that are not sex-typed. To do otherwise creates the possibility that homosexuals will see themselves as less than adequate.

Tripp (1976) points out the lack of social stereotypes by which homosexuals can pattern their relationships, which is not so in many heterosexual relationships. In comparing heterosexual and homosexual relationships Tripp states,

The dominant-submissive arrangements of heterosexuality (including plenty of variations to suit individual tastes) are demonstrated on every side. In interacting with each other, men and women are guided by traditional social mores as to what to expect of each other in terms of the division of labor and of leadership. In homosexual relationships these particular arrangements have to be individually worked out. Then, too, the sharp contrast between the sexes gives heterosexuality a whole series of advantages and stumbling blocks which are largely replaced in homosexuality by a quite different set of problems. The fact that homosexual partners are alike in so many ways gives their relationships the mixed blessing of high rapport - a similarity of response and of outlook which affords certain advantages, but also conveys a host of disadvantages for which there is no set of social stereotypes to furnish

guidelines (p. 150).

Consequently, in patterning their lives, social sex-roles and stereotypes do not have the same meaning to homosexuals as they do to heterosexuals. As both Bell and Weinberg (1978) and Tripp (1976) point out, there is a wide variation of lifestyles within the homosexual society. There is no general social guideline for male and female behavior.

There has been some research that has addressed the issue of partners of homosexual individuals (Boyden, Carroll, and Maier, 1984; Caldwell & Peplau, 1984; Peplau & Amaro, 1982), but little research could be found that addressed the perception of ideal males and females by homosexuals, and how these perceptions differed from heterosexuals. Therefore, this study is designed to answer the following question: What differences exist between male and female heterosexuals and homosexuals in their sex-role perceptions of self, ideal male, and ideal female?

Significance of the Study

Various counselors and psychologists have pointed out the need for therapists to help homosexuals in acceptance of their homosexual identity (Beane, 1981; Clark, 1977; Fisher, 1978; Tripp, 1976). Fein and Nuehring (1981) suggest that the conflict that needs resolution in homosexuals is the conflict between the perceived ideals of society that the homosexual has often incorporated and the perception of self as a homosexual. If Bem (1981) is correct in saying that sex-typing is built upon a heterosexual subschema or assumption, then for homosexuals to maintain ideals that are sex-typed (whether for the same sex or the opposite sex) would mean that an incongruence would exist between their ideals and their sexual orientation. It is Rogers (1959) who points to the need for

congruence between self and ideal self in developing maturity and psychological adjustment.

This study should provide information as to whether sexual orientation affects congruence between perceptions of self and same-sex ideals. If there is not congruence, there is the possibility that more specific attention may be needed in the area of sex-roles to aid the homosexual, or heterosexual, in personal adjustment.

Finally, this study may give some information on the relationship of viewpoints in comparing gender and sexual orientation groups. In other words, which groups will be more likely to process interpersonal information in relation to stereotypes, and in a dichotomous fashion, as opposed to groups that will be more flexible in processing of information (Bem, 1981). Tripp (1976) suggests that flexibility allows a person to deal with problems without breaking emotionally. Consequently, for the psychologist or counselor to be aware of which groups tend to use stereotypical processing of information can be of help.

Definitions of Terms

The following are definitions of terms used in this study:

Androgyny, in this study is defined using Bem's original conception: The blending of masculine and feminine characteristics in one individual, such that she or he might be "both masculine and feminine, both assertive and yielding, both instrumental and expressive - depending on the situational appropriateness of these various behaviors" (Bem, 1974, p. 155).

Femininity is defined as characteristics or behaviors which are primarily expressive in nature, such as nurturance, interpersonal

responsiveness, and empathy (Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

Gender refers to the biological sex of the individual, whether the person is male or female.

Masculinity refers to characteristics or behaviors which are instrumental in nature, such as independence, self-reliance, and dominance (Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

Sexual orientation refers to what sex an individual has physical sexual attraction to, interpersonal affection for, and erotic fantasies about, and whether these are for the same [homosexual] or for the opposite [heterosexual] biological sex (DeCecco, 1981).

Social sex-role refers to "characteristics that are culturally associated with men or with women. These characteristics are perceived as stereotypically masculine or feminine" (Shively & DeCecco, 1977, pp. 42-43).

Limitations

The following limitations are inherent in this study:

1. This study will include students at two universities who have volunteered to participate in the study. The results will not be generalizable to all homosexuals or heterosexuals.

2. Since neither the homosexual nor the heterosexual groups will be formed by a true random sampling, it is possible that the groups may be different on some variable other than the identified independent variable of sexual orientation, and this unknown variable may be the true cause of the observed differences.

3. Since volunteers will make a self declaration regarding their sexual orientation, either homosexual or heterosexual, then true

delineation of the variable rests with the honesty of the subjects themselves. Therefore, it will be impossible to know with any degree of certainty whether the heterosexual group is comprised only of heterosexuals, and whether the homosexual group is comprised only of homosexuals.

Organization of the Study

The present chapter includes an introduction to the study, a statement of the problem, significance of the study, definitions of terms, and limitations. Chapter II contains a review of the research literature pertinent to this study and the null hypotheses. Chapter III describes the subject pool, selection of subjects, instrumentation, procedure, design, and statistical methods. Chapter IV contains an analysis of the data, while Chapter V includes a summary, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter contains a review of the literature relevant to this study. Conceptualizations and determinants of social sex-roles, homosexuality and social sex-roles, self perceptions, ideal males, and ideal females are discussed in detail.

Conceptualizations and Determinants of Social Sex-Roles

Society in general has tended to use the term masculinity as sex-role characteristics associated with males, and the term femininity as sex-role characteristics associated with females (Shively & DeCecco, 1977). Johnson (1963) proposes, as Parsons and Bales (1955) had suggested earlier, that a distinction be made between masculinity and femininity by using instrumental and expressive behaviors, respectively. In describing such behaviors, Johnson (1963) writes:

Expressiveness is characterized by an orientation toward "pleasing" in the specific sense of receiving rewarding responses from others by virtue of giving them rewarding responses. For example, by being solicitous, appealing, and "understanding" a woman seeks to get a pleasurable response by giving pleasure. ... An instrumental role player, almost by definition, cannot be primarily oriented to the positive and negative emotional reactions of others to him in the immediate

interactional situation because of his orientation involves a disciplined pursuit of goals that transcend his situation. In short, he is disposed to view the interaction as a means to an end. He must resist pressures to become affectively involved in the immediate situation itself (pp. 320-321).

Women's expressive behaviors are qualities associated with motherhood, and maintaining the family system, while men's instrumental behaviors are associated with gaining a position for his family in society (Johnson, 1963). Johnson further postulates that both boys and girls (through identification with their mothers) gain expressive personality traits. In contrast, through rewards and punishments by their father, instrumental qualities are added to the son's personality, and expressive qualities are further enhanced in the daughter's personality.

Another, though similar, conceptualization of masculinity and femininity is proposed by Block (1973), who derives her definitions from Bakan (1966), who in turn suggests using terms agency and communion to describe behavior of organisms. Agency refers to the behaviors associated with self protection, self assertion, and self expansion. Whereas, communion describes behaviors associated with concern for others in relation to self. Consequently, Block (1973) parallels masculinity with agency and femininity with communion. By inspection of agency and communion Lorr and Manning (1978) suggest that Bakan's "conception also favors an instrumental-expressive difference in sex roles" (p.884).

Using an adjective check list and a semantic differential scale, Jenkin and Vroegh (1969) report that their subjects describe the "most masculine imagined" (p. 682) as having the characteristics of active,

emotionally stable, adventurous, confident, vigorous, and energetic. In describing the "most feminine imagined" (p. 690), the most frequent characteristics are affectionate, charming, appreciative, attractive, courteous, graceful, and gracious. Though Jenkin and Vroegh do not note the similarity of the descriptions to instrumental/expressive characteristics, they do point out that their research provides support for the notion that masculinity and femininity are not opposite poles on a single continuum, but rather independent dimensions, as Block (1973), and Constantinople (1973) later point out.

Bem, Martyna, and Watson (1976) make note of the expressive qualities of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) Femininity scale. In their study they first have the subjects take the BSRI, dividing them up into one of four groups: Feminine (High femininity/Low masculinity), masculine (Low femininity/High masculinity), androgynous (High femininity/High masculinity), undifferentiated (Low femininity/Low masculinity). The subjects are then observed in two experimental conditions. In one experimental condition the subjects interact with a baby, and in another experimental condition they interact with a confederate who plays the role of a student talking about feelings of isolation, etc. During both conditions, each subject is observed and rated by judges on behaviors associated with nurturance. The researchers find that individuals obtaining high scores on the BSRI Femininity scale (the feminine and androgynous groups) are more nurturant than individuals obtaining low scores on the Femininity scale (the masculine and undifferentiated groups).

Lorr and Manning (1978), by administering the BSRI and the Interpersonal Style Inventory to subjects, test the relationship of

masculinity and femininity to instrumental and expressive characteristics, respectively. They find confirmation for a relationship through significant correlations between masculinity and directiveness, achievement, independence, persistence, orientation toward the future, and help rejecting. Also, they report significant correlations between femininity and nurturance, tolerance, and sensitivity toward others.

Spence and Helmreich (1978) report positive correlations between the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) Masculinity scale and four achievement scores on the Work and Family Orientation Questionnaire (WOFO, Spence & Helmreich, 1978): Work Orientation, Mastery, Competitiveness, and Personal Concern. There are weaker correlations between the PAQ Femininity scale and the achievement scores. However, there are slight negative correlations between the Femininity scale and Competitiveness, and a fairly strong positive correlation with Work Orientation. Concerning achievement, Taylor and Hall (1982) point out that femininity in research has tended to relate positively to achievement, but negatively to dominance and aggressive measures. Consequently, only certain aspects of achievement may differentiate masculinity from femininity. Also, Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, and Broverman (1968) report that both men and women "agree that a greater number of the characteristics and behaviors associated with masculinity are socially desirable than those associated with femininity" (p. 293). Yet according to their study, women as a whole continue to ascribe to a feminine stereotype in spite of the more negative valuation of femininity.

McGee and Wells (1982) suggest that because of a higher female employment rate, smaller family size, and longer life expectancy, there

is an increasing tendency to reduce the heavy emphasis on motherhood as a woman's main source of fulfillment. Consequently, they say that women have developed and will continue to develop certain masculine behaviors relevant to their changing work and family roles. This means that the female is moving toward androgyny (High masculinity/High femininity). However, for the male, they expect that few changes will occur in their sex-role due to the lack of rewards associated with feminine characteristics and behaviors. Their stance compliments Bem and Lenny (1976) who contend that androgyny allows more flexibility in behavior, permitting the woman the flexibility needed in combining roles of a wife, mother, and career woman.

Conceptualizations of masculinity and femininity as instrumental and expressive behaviors, therefore, lend themselves to the changing conceptualizations of social sex-roles of males and females. Despite males and females having somewhat different balances of masculinity and femininity (Parsons & Bales, 1955), with masculinity being associated with males and femininity with females, neither masculinity nor femininity can be equated solely with one gender. It is the amount and proportions of masculinity and femininity that delineate a person's particular sex-role.

McGee and Wells (1982) suggest that three areas or dimensions should be investigated in studying sex-roles; (a) gender identity - sex-role self concept [perceptions], (b) gender-typed beliefs or attitudes - how others behave and should behave [ideals], which includes general concepts of behavior of men and women, and (c) gender-typed behavior - behavior as related to one sex or the other. Concerning the development of these dimensions for an individual they state,

These three dimensions and their interrelations are conditioned by widespread sex and gender inequality in our society, and in turn, gender-typed attitudes, identities, and behaviors reinforce and perpetuate societal patterns of sex and gender inequality (p. 123).

This notion is congruent with Bem (1981) who proposes that society has expectations for male and female behavior which is reinforced and that these expectations are eventually internalized into a cognitive schema. In turn, this cognitive schema serves as a prescriptive standard [ideal] for male and female behavior in a person's life.

However, the behavior is not rigid across all situations. Abrahams, Feldman, and Nash (1978) state that both women and men tend to modify their sex-role self concepts and sex-role attitudes in relation to life situations in which they are involved. Therefore, not only do internalized standards of appropriate sex-role behavior influence behavior, but also, the situation in which a person is immediately involved has an effect.

Other factors that are demonstrated to influence sex-roles are age, nationality/culture, and social class. Concerning age, one finding says that, with increasing age, young adults perceive increasing sex-role differences between males and females, but then at a certain point in age, they start to perceive less and less sex-role differences as they grow older (Minnegrode & Lee, 1978). There is also evidence by Cameron (1968) that is supportive of a decrease in masculinity in men and a decrease in femininity in women during the adult years.

Concerning culture, Block (1973) reports finding that different countries tend to emphasize different aspects of masculinity and

femininity. For example, the United States stresses more masculine attributes than Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, or England.

Smith and Fisher (1982) report a significant relationship existing between social class and sex-role attitudes. However, they say that despite its significance it is thought that the impact is fairly limited, with the greatest differences being in attitudes of the subjects who are in their middle years and the least differences being in attitudes in subjects who are in their younger years. In addition, they note that the younger subjects have a higher educational attainment level than do the middle-aged subjects.

Homosexual Identity Development

As previously pointed out, males and females acquire masculine and feminine characteristics through identification with mothers, rewards and punishments by fathers, and societal expectations (Bem, 1981; Johnson, 1963; McGee & Wells, 1982). In addition, Mischel (1966) adds generalization and discrimination of reinforced behavior, and modeling of adults and other children's behaviors.

Shively and DeCecco (1977) divide sexual identity into four components. The first component is biological sex, which is dependent upon a person's physical genitalia (except in unusual cases). The second component is gender identity, or in other words, the conviction of persons as to whether they themselves are male or female. The third component is social sex-role, which refers to characteristics culturally associated with women and men. The last component is sexual orientation, which refers to whether a person is related to the sexual and affectional preference for the same or opposite sex. Furthermore, Shively and

DeCecco suggest that

The development of sexual orientation probably parallels but is not synchronous with the development of social sex-role. The development of the physical and affectional aspects of sexual orientation may also be asynchronous. The affectional aspect of the parents' sexual orientation is usually more open to observation by the child than the physical aspect. Therefore, the emotional aspect of the child's sexual orientation may develop at a faster rate than the physical aspect. The emotional aspect may develop more rapidly in adolescence (p. 47).

They further point out that conflicts can develop between sexual orientation and gender identity, as well as between sexual orientation and social sex-roles. Consequently, any component can conflict with one or more of the other four components.

In order to describe the resolution of conflicts arising out of a sexual orientation of homosexuality Coleman (1982) proposes five stages. This process of resolution is referred to as same-sex sexual identity development. The first stage is referred to as the Pre-Coming Out stage. It is characterized by a gradually growing awareness of a homosexual orientation. Due to the impact on self-esteem of a person during this stage, this awareness is at a preconscious level, with the individual using such defenses such as denial, suppression, and repression. The person may enter therapy with generalized problems such as depression, poor self-concept, poor interpersonal relationships. Usually, the individual acknowledges her or his sexual identity and progresses to the next stage, or continues to hide the sexual orientation aspect from self

and others with continuing feelings of a low-grade depression. In some people suicide becomes the resolution.

The second stage is the Coming-out stage. It is characterized by acknowledgement to self and eventually others that there is a homosexual orientation. It is the beginning of the process of self-acceptance. Depending upon how they are responded to by the people they tell can determine whether the individual continues on with learning to accept themselves or in some cases, whether the person goes back to the pre-coming out stage.

The third stage, Exploration, is a period of experimenting with their sexual identity. Consequently, there is exploration not only sexually, but socially. Coleman states:

This stage is often misunderstood by the individuals themselves as well as outsiders. This natural and essential social and sexual experimentation can be viewed as promiscuous behavior. But gay men and lesbians must retrace some developmental steps of adolescence as they come to know and understand their true sexual identity. As an adolescent stage, this is characterized by awkwardness, intensity, and confusion (p. 153).

It is during this stage that the person can develop a sense of personal attractiveness and the social and sexual skills that are needed later.

The fourth stage, First Relationships, is a time when exploration has lost much of its attractiveness and a need for intimacy comes to the forefront. These relationships are usually very intense, characterized by possessiveness and lack of trust. Also, after a while one partner may begin to feel cramped and confined, which can result in that partner asserting independence and ending the relationship. After such

relationships individuals can continue going through the same patterns or they can learn to develop more mature and healthy relationships. It is the need for intimacy that helps bring resolution to the problems of this period.

The fifth and final stage is the Integration stage. It is a time when relationships become more successful. It is also a period when the person begins to see her or himself as a fully functioning individual in society. When rejections from others happen, they are kept in perspective and handled with normal grief reactions rather than as being psychologically crippling.

Cass (1979), who compared homosexual identity formation with interpersonal congruency theory, suggests that as the person identifies with other homosexuals, the difference between homosexual and heterosexual cultures become more emphasized. This period of emphasis is followed by a resolution or integration that is characterized by the acceptance of the diversity in lifestyles of people in general.

Sex-Role Self Perceptions

Gender Differences

Bem (1974) reports significant differences ($p < .001$) between the responses of college men and women on the BSRI Masculinity and Femininity scales. The scores of males are significantly higher on Masculinity and lower on Femininity than scores of the females. This appears to be a fairly consistent finding as evidenced by Flaherty and Dusek (1980), Gaudreau (1977), Spence and Helmreich (1978), and Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975).

Sexual Orientation Differences

Despite consistent findings for males and females in general on masculinity and femininity, when sexual orientation is added to gender, the comparisons of homosexuals and heterosexuals are less predictable. Larson (1981), using a sample of 160 college-age subjects (40 heterosexual and 40 homosexual males, and 40 homosexual and 40 heterosexual females), states that homosexual men score significantly higher ($p < .027$) on the BSRI Femininity scale than heterosexual men, but do not significantly differ on the Masculinity scale. The women score significantly higher on the BSRI Masculinity scale ($p < .025$) than do heterosexual women, but do not significantly differ on the Femininity scale.

In a study by Oldham, Farnill, and Ball (1982), comparing homosexual and heterosexual females, who had an age range from 18 to 54, find that homosexual females on the BSRI have significantly more masculinity than heterosexual women. However, they do not find a significant difference in femininity.

Another way of reporting the masculinity and femininity descriptive statistics is demonstrated by Spence and Helmreich (1978). Like Bem, Martyna, and Watson (1976), they divide subjects into one of four categories. These categories are masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated. They report percentages of homosexual and heterosexual men and women falling into the particular categories in their sample (see Table 1). Further analysis of the data shows that the sample of homosexual men, as a whole, is significantly higher on the Femininity scale and significantly lower on the Masculinity scale of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) than the sample of heterosexual men.

Also, the sample of homosexual females is significantly higher on the PAQ Masculinity scale and lower on the Femininity scale than the sample of Heterosexual females.

Table 1

Percentages of Subjects in Sex-Role Categories

Sex Role Categories	Gender			
	Males		Females	
	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>
Masculine	34%	9%	14%	22%
Feminine	8%	23%	32%	13%
Androgynous	32%	18%	27%	33%
Undifferentiated	25%	50%	28%	32%

Heilbrun and Thompson (1977), using 211 homosexual subjects (84 females and 127 males) and 217 heterosexual subjects (94 females and 123 males) report no significant difference between the percentage of male heterosexuals and homosexuals when grouped as androgynous, masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated. They do find significant differences, however, between female heterosexuals and homosexuals when dividing them

into four groups. The differences are most pronounced in the high incidence of masculine sex-roles, and the low incidence of feminine and undifferentiated sex-roles in the homosexual females. They interpret the results to mean that "sex role is of more systematic importance in female homosexuality than is the case for males" (p. 76).

Considering the diversity in experimental results of sexual orientation differences, other research becomes relevant. Bell and Weinberg (1978) point out the wide diversity which exists among homosexuals as to personality and lifestyles.

Even their personality characteristics must be appraised in the light of how functional they are in a setting that may be different from the dominant cultural milieu. It must also be remembered that even a particular type of homosexual is never entirely like others categorized in the same way, much less like those whose life-styles barely resemble his or her own. And while the present study has taken a step forward in its delineation of types of homosexuals, it too fails to capture the full diversity that must be understood if society is ever fully to respect, and ever to appreciate, the way in which individual homosexual men and women live their lives (p. 231).

This diversity provides support for the research conclusions of Stringer and Grygier (1976) who report of their homosexual sample (using the Dynamic Personality Inventory) "the possibility that homosexuality may be associated with a more complex mixture of both high and low masculinity and femininity than has been suggested before" (p.24). Brooks (1981) points to the sex-role adaptations of lesbians:

The prevalence of role flexibility is evidenced by the findings that 81 percent of the sample viewed adult role functions as interchangeable between partners and that 83 percent indicated interchangeability in relation to initiating love-making as well (p. 47).

Maracek, Finn, and Cardell (1982) suggest that gender-role-playing occurs less frequently in homosexual couples than in heterosexual couples. Larson (1982) states that homosexual couples tend not to pattern their sex-roles as heterosexual couples do. Rather than structuring their relationships in dichotomies (e.g., active/passive, dominant/submissive) as heterosexuals, homosexuals tend to have a "both/and" attitude. Homosexuals' sex-roles are seen as more diffuse, rather than differentiated as with many heterosexuals.

Robinson, Skeen, and Flake-Hobson (1982) state from their research:

. . .the data reported here indicate that homosexual men are as capable of meshing the masculine and feminine aspects of their personalities early in life as later. However, this does not appear to be true of heterosexual males, who become androgynous only in later life (p. 358).

They further report that homosexuals are more of a heterogeneous group than has been stereotyped, with the sample showing mixed endorsements of sex roles.

In summary, it appears that there are inconsistent and diverse findings concerning differences between heterosexuals and homosexuals. However, these findings might actually be more reflective of the greater heterogeneity of homosexuals as compared to heterosexuals and their self descriptions of their social sex-roles.

Ideal Male

Gender Differences

Results from the literature are generally consistent regarding men's ideal male characteristics (Gilbert, Deutsch, & Strahan, 1978; McKee & Sherriffs, 1959; Mezydlo & Betz, 1980; Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, & Broverman, 1968; Scher, 1984). In other words, men tend to see the ideal male as having predominantly masculine characteristics as compared to feminine characteristics. However, three studies show agreement of women with the males' view of the ideal male (Gilbert, et al., 1978; Mezydlo & Betz, 1980; Rosenkrantz, et al., 1968), while two studies (McKee & Sherriffs, 1959; Scher, 1984) suggest that women view the ideal male as having relatively equal amounts of masculinity and femininity.

Scher (1984) suggests that women have been changing in their attitudes about sex-roles due to factors such as the women's movement and women's consciousness-raising groups. In addition, McKee and Sherriffs (1959) suggest that there is pressure from women for men to be more expressive in their feelings. However, Mezydlo and Betz (1980) find in their sample that although most of the women view the ideal male in a traditional manner, the ones that are feminist in orientation tend to attribute high masculine and low feminine characteristics to both ideal males and females.

Sexual Orientation Differences

There is little research specifically addressing differences between homosexuals' and heterosexuals' perception of their ideal male. However,

Boyden, Carroll, and Maier (1984) have homosexual males describe themselves on the BSRI and describe their ideal partner on a list of 48 traits. They state that the subjects prefer an ideal partner that is logical and expressive, and similar in age and sex-role.

Brooks (1981), in contrast, ask lesbians if they have ever been attracted to men, and if so, whether they prefer the man to be more feminine or more masculine in comparison to other men. They separated evaluations on psychological and physical characteristics. It is found that 28% are never attracted to men. Of the group that is more attracted to men, on psychological characteristics, 47.2% prefer a more feminine man while 7.1% prefer a more masculine man. Regarding physical characteristics (from the same group), 23% prefer more masculine men while 19% prefer more feminine men. From both groups, the remainder of the percentages make no distinctions.

Ideal Female

Gender Differences

Studies addressing views of women regarding ideal females are inconsistent in the interpretation of their findings. Three studies suggest that women view ideal females as having approximately equal amounts of masculine and feminine characteristics (Gilbert, et al., 1978; Scher, 1984; Steinman & Fox, 1966), whereas, three other studies suggest that women view ideal females as having higher feminine characteristics than masculine characteristics (McKee & Sherriffs, 1959; Mezydlo & Betz, 1980; Rosenkrantz, et al., 1968).

Men, in five of the six studies cited in the previous paragraph, tend to view the ideal woman as having higher feminine characteristics

than masculine characteristics. However, Steinman and Fox (1966) indicate that males tend to see the ideal female as having equal proportions of active and permissive traits on the Inventory of Feminine Values (Steinman & Fox, 1966). Following a study of the individual items, they state that men seem to take more liberal views on global items of women (e.g., use her talents, create and fulfill herself) than on specific items (e.g., marriage and children should be the most important aspects in a woman's life) of which they tend to be split. This is interpreted to mean that men are ambivalent about the roles of women.

After studying 62 male seniors from an Ivy League male college (Komarovsky, 1973), it is found that these males are adjusting to the ideal of intellectual companionship with women. However, there tends to be numerous ambivalences and inconsistencies in the attitudes expressed toward working wives. Consequently, they conclude, "The ideological supports for the traditional sex role differentiation in marriage are weakening, but the emotional allegiance to the modified traditional pattern is still strong" (p. 884).

Grube, Kleinhasselink, and Kearney (1982) find that men with low self-acceptance are more likely to be attracted to traditional females. Conversely, men with high self-esteem are more likely to be attracted to a nontraditional female.

Sexual Orientation Differences

As with the ideal male, there appears to be little or no research on difference between homosexuals' and heterosexuals' perception of the ideal female. However, Peplau and Amaro (1982) point out that it is a

false stereotype, that lesbian relationships mimic heterosexual relationships. Rather, lesbians tend to reject categorizing roles for self or partner. In investigating power balance in lesbian relationships, Caldwell and Peplau (1984) find that 97% of their sample think that both partners in a lesbian relationship should have equal power in the relationship. Therefore, they want a partner to be equal to them at least in the area of power.

Summary

Presented in this chapter was a review of the literature pertinent to this study. Conceptualizations of sex-roles suggest that masculinity and femininity, defined as instrumental and expressive behaviors, are components of sex-roles. Furthermore, that self-concepts, attitudes about others, and actual behaviors related to gender are areas that are relevant to an overall sex-role conceptualization. Some areas that can impact a person's sex-role are life situations, age, culture, and possibly educational attainment.

Homosexuals, due to conflicts experienced because of their sexual orientation, tend to go through a process before a resolution is reached. This process leads to an acceptance of self and others, as well as a more mature manner of dealing with interpersonal relationships.

Research on sex-role self perception and gender appears to be fairly consistent as to men having more masculine and less feminine characteristics than women. However, when examining differences between heterosexuals and homosexuals, there tends to be differences in research results. However, the literature concerning sex-roles and homosexuality does suggest that homosexuals do not maintain as rigidly dichotomous view

of their roles for self and significant others as heterosexuals seem to do. Homosexuals' roles tend to be more diffuse and flexible.

Concerning male and female ideals, most of the literature supports the concept that men tend to maintain traditional ideals for males and females, whereas, research on women's ideals is not as consistent in comparison to men. Some research supports traditional ideals and some supports ideals that are balanced in masculinity and femininity for both men and women. There is little or no research on differences in ideals for heterosexuals and homosexuals. However, in relationships there appears to be more similarity between homosexual partners than there does with heterosexual partners.

Null Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses will be tested at the .05 level of significance.

1. For males overall, there will be no significant interaction between their sexual orientation, and perception of self and gender ideals as measured by the Androgyny scale of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI, Bem, 1974).
2. When measures of self, ideal male, and ideal female are combined, there will be no significant difference between heterosexual and homosexual males as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.
3. When heterosexual and homosexual males are combined, there will be no significant difference among the perceptions of self, ideal male, and ideal female as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.
4. For females overall, there will be no significant interaction between sexual orientation, and perceptions of self and gender ideals as

measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

5. When measures of self, ideal male, and ideal female are combined, there will be no significant difference between heterosexual and homosexual females as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

6. When heterosexual and homosexual females are combined, there will be no significant difference among the perceptions of self, ideal male, and ideal female as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Discussed in this chapter are procedures for selection and classification of the subjects. A description of the instrument and the procedure for administration is followed by the research design and the statistical procedures to be used in analyzing the data.

Subjects

The 212 subjects who participated in this research study were recruited from two large southwestern universities. Both universities are state supported. One university is in a rural community, and the other university is in an urban area.

Homosexual subjects were obtained through the campus homophile organizations, as well as through several individuals placing the researcher and their various homosexual acquaintances in contact with one another. The subjects were then tested in small groups. A total of 39 homosexual males and 38 homosexual females were obtained.

Heterosexual subjects were obtained from undergraduate psychology and education classes at the two universities. The subjects were tested during their regular classroom time. A total of 36 heterosexual males and 99 heterosexual females were obtained.

Age was controlled for in the total sample by eliminating anyone over the age of 30 (Cameron, 1968; Maxwell, 1983). Furthermore, only

undergraduate students were used as subjects. The numbers stated to this point reflect this process of elimination.

Since there were unequal numbers of subjects per group, a situation of nonorthogonality was created for the design of choice in this research study. Tabachnick and Fidell (1983) state that the simplest strategy for dealing with the problem is by random elimination of subjects in the cells with larger sample sizes, until all cell sample sizes are equal. Consequently, random elimination of data for the heterosexual females, homosexual males, and homosexual females was used to obtain an equal cell sample size of 36. Therefore, the total sample size used for descriptive purposes and statistical analysis was 144.

Classification of Subjects

The Demographic Data sheet (Appendix A) was completed by all subjects. Four items were used to separate individuals into categories of heterosexual or homosexual. The first item (#188) used self-declaration of sexual orientation (Dickey, 1961; Jones & DeCecco, 1982; Stringer & Grygier, 1976). The other three items (#189, #190, #191), in keeping with the definition presented by DeCecco (1981), had each subject rate on a 7-point scale the proportion of sexual attraction, sexual fantasy, and romantic affections for the same and opposite sex. For a subject to be classified as homosexual, she or he had to declare self as homosexual, as well as, respond to all of the last three items indicating more homosexual inclination than heterosexual (i.e., "E", "F", or "G"). For a subject to be classified as heterosexual, she or he had to declare self as heterosexual, as well as, respond to all of the last three items indicating more heterosexual inclination than homosexual

(i.e., "A", "B", or "C"). Individuals declaring themselves to be bisexual, or not maintaining a consistent orientation on questions 189 through 191 (e.g., answering "B" on #189 and then answering "F" on #190) were eliminated from the study.

Group Comparability

Five questions on the Demographic Data Sheet (Appendix B) were used to describe and compare the sample groups. These questions related to age, church attendance, number of siblings, and marital status of parents/guardians.

The frequency of subjects according to age, gender and sexual orientation was recorded and is presented in Table 2. The majority of subjects in each of the four groups (classified as to gender and sexual orientation) was in the age range between 19 and 24, inclusive.

The majority of the subjects in the heterosexual male, homosexual male, and homosexual female groups reported attending church either infrequently or not at all (Table 3). Whereas, only 36% of the heterosexual females claimed infrequent or no church attendance, 50% reported frequent or regular church attendance.

The majority of all four groups had 0 to 2 living siblings (Table 4). Of the living siblings, the majority of all four groups had 0 to 1 living sisters (Table 5) and 0 to 1 living brothers (Table 6).

Concerning the marital status of parents/guardians during most of the subjects' public school years, greater than 80% of all groups had parents/guardians that were married or living as married (Table 7).

From the above descriptive data, the only noticeable difference might be in the area of church attendance. Otherwise, the samples

appeared to be fairly consistent across groups.

Table 2

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Age, Gender, and Sexual Orientation

Age in Years	Gender			
	Male		Female	
	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>
18 and Younger	0	1	1	0
19-21	18	12	18	14
22-24	12	11	7	10
25-27	4	6	4	8
28-30	2	6	6	4

Table 3

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Church Attendance, Gender,
and Sexual Orientation

Church Attendance	Gender			
	Male		Female	
	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>
No Attendance	12	15	5	9
Infrequent	10	8	8	10
Occasional	5	5	5	3
Frequent	1	3	6	4
Regular	8	5	12	10

Table 4

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Total Number of Living Siblings, Gender, and Sexual Orientation

Number of Siblings	Gender			
	Male		Female	
	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>
0	4	4	3	2
1	11	12	9	16
2	10	7	7	6
3	4	4	9	3
4	4	2	4	4
5	1	3	2	1
6	0	2	0	1
7	0	1	1	3
8	2	1	1	0

Table 5

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Number of Living Sisters,
Gender, and Sexual Orientation

Number of Sisters	Gender			
	Male		Female	
	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>
0	13	7	12	14
1	13	15	15	9
2	5	7	4	8
3	2	5	3	4
4	1	1	0	1
5	2	0	2	0
6 or More	0	1	0	0

Table 6

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Number of Living Brothers,
Gender, and Sexual Orientation

Number of Brothers	Gender			
	Males		Females	
	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>
0	13	18	8	14
1	15	8	15	12
2	3	5	8	3
3	5	4	4	4
4	0	1	0	2
5	0	0	0	0
6 or More	0	0	1	1

Table 7

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Marital Status of
Parents/Guardians, Gender, and Sexual Orientation

Parental Marital Status	Gender			
	Males		Females	
	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>	<u>Heterosexual</u>	<u>Homosexual</u>
Married	30	30	33	34
Separated	0	0	0	0
Divorced	3	5	3	2
Never Married	3	1	0	0

Instrumentation

The instruments that were used in this study to gather the data were the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) and a Demographic Data Sheet. Furthermore, a questionnaire was utilized with subjects who volunteered for further research.

The Bem Sex Role Inventory

The BSRI, compiled by Bem (1974), contains three major scales, the Masculinity scale, the Femininity scale, and the Androgyny scale. The BSRI is constructed of 20 masculine items, 20 feminine items, and 20 neutral items. Each masculine item is a characteristic that qualified as masculine "if it was judged to be more desirable in American society for a man than for a woman" (Bem, 1974, pp. 155-156). Likewise, each feminine item is a characteristic that qualified as feminine if it was judged more desirable for a woman than for a man in American society. Each neutral item was judged to be neutral with respect to masculinity and femininity. The neutral items primarily serve as a neutral context for the Masculinity and Femininity scales, however, they were used in the original development of the inventory to insure that socially desirable traits were not what was primarily being tapped.

The BSRI requests the person to indicate on a 7-point scale how well each of the 60 items describes her or himself. The scale ranges from 1 ("never or almost never true") to 7 ("always or almost always true"). The Masculinity scale score is obtained by calculating the mean of the 20 masculine items, and the Femininity scale score is obtained by calculating the mean of the 20 feminine items. The Androgyny difference score is obtained by subtracting the Masculinity scale score from the

Femininity scale score and multiplying by 2.322. This is actually an approximation of a t-ratio of a subject's masculinity and femininity scores, but according to Bem (1974) "the two indices are virtually identical ($r = .98$)" (p. 158).

Reliability of the BSRI. Bem (1974) reported internal consistency of the BSRI by using coefficient alpha on two samples. These samples were composed of 444 males and 279 females in one sample, and 117 males and 77 females in the other sample. Both samples showed high reliability as measured by Cronbach Alpha for Masculinity (.86 and .86) and for Femininity (.80 and .82).

Test-retest reliabilities were found by Bem (1974) using a four week interval. This sample consisted of 28 males and 28 females. Product-moment correlations were computed for Masculinity (.90) and Femininity (.90).

Construct validity of the BSRI. Taylor and Hall (1982) conducted an extensive review of the literature on psychological androgyny. They pointed out the agreement among various researchers on the definition of masculinity and femininity (Bem, Martyna, and Watson, 1976; Parsons & Bales, 1955; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Femininity was considered to be expressive in nature (e.g., nurturance, interpersonal responsiveness, empathy) and masculinity to be instrumental in nature (e.g., independence, self-reliance, dominance). Doing a meta-analysis on published research, Taylor and Hall (1982) stated that "masculinity related positively to the male-typed dependent measures in 93% of the analyses" (p. 355) that they investigated, and that "femininity was positively associated with female dependent measures in 80% of the analyses" (pp. 355-356).

Lorr and Manning (1978) used a sample of 423 adolescent females and 225 adolescent males. They had the subjects take both the BSRI and the Interpersonal Style Inventory (ISI), Form D and correlated the ISI scales with the BSRI Masculinity and Femininity scales (see Table 8). They found that "...the masculine typed group was most directive, achieving and independent. The feminine group was highest on nurturance, tolerance and sensitivity" (p. 884).

Harris and Schwab (1979), with a sample of 83 female college students, found significant Pearson product-moment correlations at or beyond the .05 level of significance between thirteen California Psychological Inventory (CPI) scales and the BSRI Masculinity and Femininity scales (see table 9).

Table 8

Correlations between BSRI and ISI Scales

ISI Scales	BSRI Masculinity Scale		BSRI Femininity Scale	
	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>
Directiveness	.60	.80		
Achieving	.52	.52		
Independence	.60	.62		
Nurturance			.64	.50
Tolerance			.49	.43
Sensitivity			.48	.50

Flaherty and Dusek (1980) had 162 male and 195 female college students complete a BSRI and a Multidimensional Semantic Differential Self-Concept Scale. They performed a multiple regression analysis to assess the influence on the Masculinity and Femininity scores of four aspects of self concept. The two dimensions that reflected instrumental (achievement/Leadership) and expressive (Congeniality/Sociability) traits were found to be related to the respective Masculinity and Femininity scores at the .001 level of significance (no correlations between individual variables were given).

Bem, Martyna, and Watson (1976), using 42 male and 42 female undergraduate students, found significantly more nurturant behaviors (expressive) toward a baby in Feminine and Androgynous people than in Masculine people ($p < .02$). Furthermore, they found similar significant results ($p < .002$) using a confederate, posing as a lonely fellow student.

To establish construct validity through factor analysis, Gaudreau (1977) used 325 subjects who were industrial workers, male police officers, and full-time housewives. She found,

The BSRI does not appear to suffer from the same weaknesses as traditional masculinity-femininity scales; that is, (a) the scale successfully differentiated between masculine males and feminine females, and (b) when items were factor analyzed they loaded on two common factors (p. 302).

Kelly, Furman, and Young (1978) using 65 male and 65 female undergraduate students found the Pearson product-moment correlations between the BSRI, the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ), the Personality Research Form (PRF) ANDRO scale, and the Masculinity and

Femininity scales of the Adjective Check List (ACL). The BSRI Masculinity scores correlated with the Masculinity scores on the following instruments: PAQ (.85), ANDRO (.70), and ACL (.75). The BSRI Femininity scores correlated with the femininity scores on the following instruments: PAQ (.73), ANDRO (.62), and ACL (.68).

Table 9

Correlations between BSRI and CPI Scales

CPI Scales	BSRI Scales	
	Masculinity	Femininity
Dominance	.31	
Capacity for Status	.41	
Sociability	.35	
Social Presence	.37	
Self-Acceptance	.35	
Intellectual Efficiency	.24	
Femininity	-.22	
Sense of Well-Being		.21
Socialization		.23
Good Impression		.23
Communality		.23
Achievement via Conformance		.22
Flexibility		-.24

Demographic Data Sheet

A Demographic Data Sheet (Appendix A) was utilized in this study. It served a two-fold purpose; (a) to provide a descriptive profile of the subjects in the sample, and (b) to control for possible confounding of variables. Characteristics representing the profile included: educational level, religious practices, number of siblings, marital status of parents or guardians, and age. Since the heterosexual subjects were drawn from undergraduate classes, then only undergraduate homosexual students were included in this study. Furthermore, age was controlled for through elimination of subjects over the age of 30 (Cameron, 1968; Maxwell, 1983).

Questionnaire

An oral questionnaire (Appendix B) was utilized to aid in explaining the possible causative factors of the quantitative results. The questions represented; (a) the influence of others on the individual during childhood and during the present (identification, modeling, and learning), (b) perceived conflicts in society about sex-roles, and (c) conflicts within the individual about sex-roles.

The influence of others on the individual through identification goes back to the work of Identification Theorists (Mussen, 1969). While perceived conflicts relate to the theories that emphasize cognitions, such as Kohlberg's (1966) Cognitive-Developmental Theory. Then certain theorists combine cognitions, learning, and/or modeling/identification such as Mischel (1966) and Bem (1981).

Consequently, it is through the questions in Appendix B that certain variables, which exhibit a more prominent influence on orientation, may

become apparent.

Procedure

The BSRI was administered to the Homosexual subjects in small groups. It was administered to the heterosexual group during regularly scheduled class times. All groups were instructed to complete the BSRI three times, with instructions to describe characteristics of their "ideal female", their "ideal male", and themselves. All subjects were required to complete a Demographic Data Sheet following the three BSRI presentations. The subjects were requested to place their responses for the BSRI's and the Demographic Data Sheet on a computer answer sheet.

The sequence of the three BSRI's was counterbalanced by the order that they were stapled together for each subject. The counterbalancing was used to deal with possible order effects. However, Deutsch and Gilbert (1976) checked order effects of real self, ideal self, ideal man and woman, and found no significant order effects following sequential presentations of the BSRI.

At the end of the demographic data sheet, subjects were given an opportunity to volunteer for a telephone interview. To volunteer for the interview subjects wrote their first names and their telephone numbers on the computer answer sheets. These volunteers were called on the telephone and asked the questions in Appendix B. The answers were recorded verbatim by the researcher.

Design of the Study

Since this was a causal comparative study, two of the variables were organismic (gender, sexual orientation), but were defined as independent

variables. Consequently, each subject fell into one of four categories, male homosexual, female homosexual, male heterosexual, or female heterosexual. All subjects completed the BSRI three times, describing themselves, their ideal males, and their ideal females. These three descriptions served as the three levels of the independent variable termed, "perceptions". The BSRI Androgyny score was obtained on all of the administrations. The Androgyny scores were used as the dependent variable.

Since the questions in the subject-optional telephone interview were qualitative in nature, they were recorded and the general trends noted. However, they were not statistically analyzed.

Statistical Procedure

Two separate analyses were performed in this study. The first analysis only included males, while the second analysis only included females.

Analysis Involving Males

The general statistical design used in this analysis was a two factor 2×3 analysis of variance with repeated measures on the second factor. The first factor was sexual orientation (heterosexual, homosexual), and the second factor was perceptions (self, ideal male, and ideal female). Since univariate experimental designs involving repeated measures "require a highly restrictive set of assumptions concerning population treatment variances and covariances" (Kirk, 1968, p. 256), then a multivariate set-up was employed to analyze the data.

Since a multivariate analysis requires use of a contrast on a

repeated measures factor with more than two levels, a repeated contrast was selected. This particular contrast compared the males' perceived self against their perceived ideal male, and their perceived ideal male against their perceived ideal female.

Analysis Involving Females

The analysis for females was set up identical to the analysis for males except for the contrast on the repeated measures factor. The data were placed in the computer in the same order for the repeated measures factor as it had been placed for the males; (a) self, (b) ideal male, and (c) ideal female. Consequently, in order to compare the females' self perception against their ideal female perception, and their ideal female perception against their ideal male perception, a simple contrast was utilized.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the statistical analyses of the data which were collected for this study. The results of the six null hypotheses are presented, and are followed by a posteriori comparisons between selected cell means. Prior to the chapter summary, a description is given of the volunteer subject responses to the qualitative inquiries of the researcher.

SPSS^X Manova (Nie, 1983) was used to analyze the data. Mixed Model Multivariate Analyses of Variance were performed separately on the male and female groups. Appropriate contrasts (Repeated for Males, Simple for Females) were selected to clarify the repeated measures and interaction effects, and Eta Squared provided a Strength of Association measure.

Following the results of the above analyses, Tukey's Test for Unconfounded Means was used to establish significance between selected cell means. This procedure provided further information concerning the relationship of the independent variables of Sexual Orientation and Perceptions.

Tests of the Null Hypotheses

Results for the Male Subjects

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (1983) the Multivariate Analysis

assumptions of multivariate normality and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices are robust to modest violation if the sample sizes are equal and there is a sample size large enough to produce at least 20 degrees of freedom. Both of these conditions were met in this analysis. Outliers were checked for through SPSS^x (Nie, 1983) by the within cell normal and detrended normal plots. It was not found necessary to eliminate any data. Finally, multicollinearity and singularity were ruled out since the determinant of the within cell correlations did not approach 0.00 (Determinant = .99939), and the within correlation did not approach .99 ($R^2 = .02479$).

A mixed model Multivariate Analysis of Variance, using Wilks' Lambda, produced a significant Interaction effect ($F_{2,69} = 25.64$, $p < .001$), and a significant Perceptions effect ($F_{2,69} = 56.87$, $p < .001$). There was no significant Sexual Orientation effect ($F_{1,70} = 1.86$, $p = .177$) using unique sums of squares. All scores are presented in Table 10, and cell means and standard deviations in Table 11.

Table 10

Multivariate Analysis of Variance Summary Table

Source	Test Name	Value of F	D.F.	Significance of F
Orientation	Sum of Squares	1.86086	1,70	.177
Perceptions	Wilks' Lambda	56.87095	2,69	.000
Orient x Perc	Wilks' Lambda	25.64422	2,69	.000

Table 11

Cell Means and Standard Deviations for Male Subjects

Perception	Sexual Orientation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Self	Heterosexual	-2.11500	1.83037
	Homosexual	-0.23306	2.04130
Ideal Male	Heterosexual	-1.76667	1.60212
	Homosexual	-1.00333	1.57149
Ideal Female	Heterosexual	1.60917	1.53863
	Homosexual	0.25806	1.84969

Hypothesis 1. For Males overall, there will be no significant interaction between their sexual orientation, and perception of self and gender ideals as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

A 2 x 3 mixed model multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine if a significant interaction between Sexual Orientation and Perceptions existed. The interaction effect was found to be significant, according to Wilks Lambda with 2 and 69 degrees of freedom, at beyond the .001 level of significance. Eta Squared accounted for 43% of the variance. Furthermore, it was found that both components (Self vs. Ideal Male and Ideal Male vs. Ideal Female) of the a priori repeated contrast contributed significantly ($p < .001$) to the interaction effect. This was

confirmed both by Roy-Bargman Stepdown F-Tests and by Univariate F-Tests (See Table 12). Consequently the Null Hypothesis was rejected.

Table 12

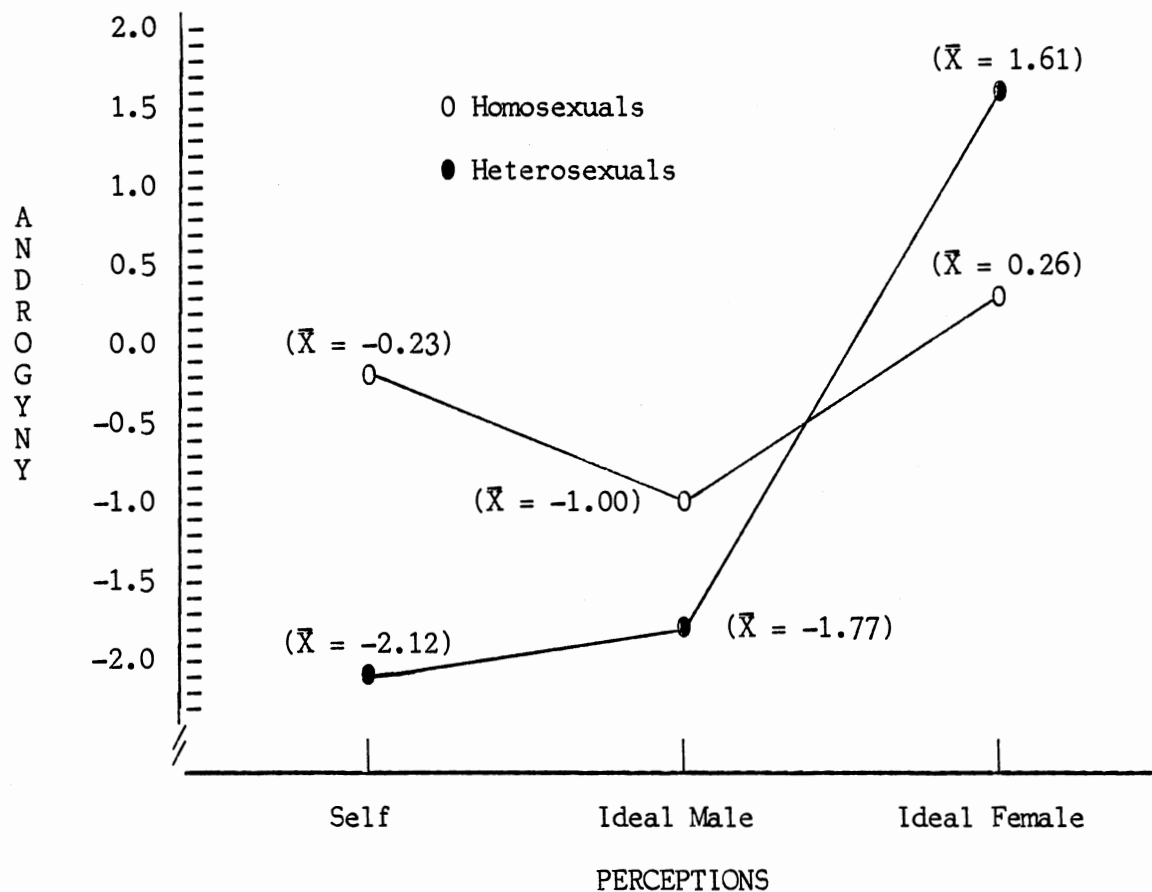
Results of Repeated Contrast F-Tests for the Interaction Effect

Component	Test Name	F	D.F.	Sig. of F
Self vs. Ideal Male	Stepdown F	34.18766	1,70	.000
	Univariate F	34.18766	1,70	.000
Ideal Male vs. Ideal Female	Stepdown F	11.81754	1,69	.001
	Univariate F	19.07842	1,70	.000

A graph of the cell means is presented in Figure 1 to clarify the interaction. By inspection, the means of the homosexual males consistently are closer to 0.00 ("perfect" androgyny) across all perceptions than are the means of the heterosexual males.

Figure 1

Androgyny Scale Means of Males as Related to Sexual Orientation and Perceptions



Hypothesis 2. When measures of self, ideal male, and ideal female are combined there will be no significant difference between heterosexual and homosexual males as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

As indicated in Table 10, the main effect for sexual orientation was not significant ($F_{1,70} = 1.86086$, $p = .177$). This does not appear to be an unusual finding after examining Figure 1. The means of the

heterosexuals fall consistently in more extreme areas in relation to 0.00 than do the homosexuals. Consequently, when the perceptions' effect is collapsed across and the mean for the entire sample of heterosexuals is compared to the homosexuals' overall mean, it is expected that the means would be close to one another (with the heterosexuals having a larger standard deviation). Therefore, this nonsignificant effect is simply demonstrating a somewhat consistent variability within the homosexual means and within the heterosexual means in relation to the midpoint of the Androgyny scale (0.00). As a result, there was a failure to reject Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3. When heterosexual and homosexual males are combined there will be no significant difference among the perceptions of self, ideal male, and ideal female as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

According to the Wilks' Lambda Value ($\Lambda = .37758$) the Perceptions Effect was found significant ($F_{2,69} = 56.87095$, $p < .001$). Eta Squared accounted for 62% of the variance. In addition, the Repeated Contrast components (Self vs. Ideal Male, and Ideal Male vs. Ideal Female) reached a significant level beyond the .001 level of significance, according to both the Roy-Barman Stepdown F-Tests and the Univariate F-Tests (See Table 13).

These results suggest that the males as a whole from this sample, tend to have a significant perceptual difference between themselves and their same-sex ideal. Also, they have a significant perceptual difference between their ideal male and ideal female. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was rejected. However, care should be taken not to generalize to males in the general population since the homosexual males were possibly in a disproportionate percentage (50%). From the Kinsey

Data (Gebhard & Johnson, 1979) it is reported that more than 85% of over 5,000 males in their sample denied any degree of sexual arousal when seeing individuals of the same sex.

Table 13

Results of the Repeated Contrast F-Tests for the Perceptions Effect

Component	Test Name	F	D.F.	Sig. of F
Self vs. Ideal Male	Stepdown F	25.97767	1,70	.000
	Univariate F	25.97767	1,70	.000
Ideal Male vs. Ideal Female	Stepdown F	64.28030	1,69	.000
	Univariate F	91.76259	1,70	.000

Post Hoc comparisons. One possibility for further exploration of the data was to compare one cell mean of homosexual males against another cell mean of heterosexual males (e.g., perceived self vs. perceived self). However, since perception of self and ideals were interrelated (Deutsch & Gilbert, 1976; Garnets & Pleck, 1979; Scher, 1984), and since the multivariate analysis treated the perceptions as a construct, it was decided that the post hocs would concentrate on the relationships between perceptions and how these relationships were affected by orientation.

By use of specific comparisons of cell means possible answers to the

following questions were explored: (a) Do homosexuals and/or heterosexuals maintain congruence between self and same-sex ideal?; and (b) Do homosexuals have less of a tendency to maintain significant differences between male and female ideals than do heterosexuals?

Tukey's Test for Unconfounded means was used for the comparisons with a .05 level of significance chosen. Table 14 summarizes the results.

Table 14

Summary of Post Hoc Comparisons for Male Subjects

Sexual Orientation	Differences between Cell Means	
	Self - Ideal Male	Ideal Male - Ideal Female
Heterosexual	0.34833	3.37584*
Homosexual	0.77027*	1.26139*

*p < .05

For homosexual males significant differences were found between their perceptions of themselves ($\bar{X} = -0.23$) and the ideal male ($\bar{X} = -1.00$) as well as between the perceptions of the ideal male ($\bar{X} = -1.00$) and the ideal female ($\bar{X} = 0.26$). In contrast, for the heterosexual males there was not a significant difference between their perceptions of

themselves ($\bar{X} = -2.12$) and the ideal male ($\bar{X} = -1.77$), but there was a significant difference between their perceptions of the ideal male ($\bar{X} = -1.77$) and the ideal female ($\bar{X} = 1.61$). From these results, it is suggested that heterosexual males may have more of a congruence between self and their same-sex ideal than do homosexual males. However, it appears that both heterosexual and homosexual males tend to perceive ideal males and females as having different psychological characteristics.

Comparisons to Bem's classifications. When developing her Bem Sex Role Inventory, Bem (1974) included a method of classification of subjects according to their Androgyny score. This classification system was normed on a sample of 561 males and 356 females. Table 15 presents her classification system according to Androgyny Scale scores.

Table 15

Bem's Classification System According to Androgyny Scale Scores

Classification	Range of Androgyny Scale Scores
Feminine	$t \geq +2.025$
Near Feminine	$+1.000 < t < +2.025$
Androgynous	$-1.000 \leq t \leq +1.000$
Near Masculine	$-2.025 < t < -1.000$
Masculine	$t \leq -2.025$

Using Bem's classification system as a reference, the male subjects' means were categorized according to this scheme and presented in Table 16. Accordingly, none of the heterosexual males' mean scores fell within the androgynous range; whereas, the homosexual males' means for self ($\bar{X} = -0.23$) and ideal female ($\bar{X} = 0.26$) were considered androgynous, with their mean for the Ideal Male ($\bar{X} = -1.00333$) being near masculine. Consequently, the heterosexual males show a tendency for sex-typing across the three perceptions. Homosexual males, on the other hand, appear to have a mild tendency (Ideal Male Mean = 1.00333) in sex-typing only their ideal male. It should be noted that while the "near masculine" or "near feminine" descriptions do not connote sex-typing, neither do they connote androgyny.

Table 16

Categorization of Cell Means According to Bem's Classification System

Orientation	Perceptions		
	Self	Ideal Male	Ideal Female
Heterosexual	Masculine	Near Masculine	Near Feminine
Homosexual	Androgynous	Near Masculine	Androgynous

Results for the Female Subjects

As with the analysis with the male subjects, the assumptions underlying multivariate analysis of variance were examined. A sample size of 36 per cell was maintained which produced more than 20 degrees of freedom. Therefore, assumptions concerning multivariate normality and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices were considered robust to any modest violations. An examination for outliers were conducted in the same manner as the previous analysis, and likewise, it was not found necessary to discard any data. Finally the determinant (.97155) and the within cell correlation (-.16866) were within appropriate ranges.

A mixed model multivariate analysis of variance, using Wilks' Lambda, produced a significant interaction effect ($F_{2,69} = 6.04812$, $p = .004$), and a significant Perceptions effect ($F_{2,69} = 26.37743$, $p < .001$). However, there was no significant Sexual Orientation effect ($F_{1,70} = .90684$, $p = .344$) using Unique Sums of Squares. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 17 with cell means and standard deviations presented in Table 18.

Hypothesis 4. For females overall, there will be no significant interaction between sexual orientation, and perceptions of self and gender ideals as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

A 2×3 mixed model multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine if a significant interaction between Sexual Orientation and Perceptions existed. The interaction effect was found to be significant, according to Wilks' Lambda with 2 and 69 degrees of freedom, at the .004 level of significance. Eta Squared accounted for approximately 15% of the variance. However, it was found that only one component (Ideal Female vs. Ideal Male) of the a priori simple contrast contributed

significantly ($p = .003$) to the interaction, while the other component (Self vs. Ideal Female) did not reach significance ($p = .143$). Both the Roy-Bargman Stepdown F-Tests and the Univariate F-Tests produced similar results (Table 19). However, since the interaction effect was considered significant, hypothesis 4 was rejected.

Table 17

Multivariate Analysis of Variance Summary Table

Source	Test Name	Value of F	D.F.	Sig. of F
Orientation	Sum of Squares	.90684	1,70	.344
Perceptions	Wilks' Lambda	26.37743	2,69	.000
Orient x Perc	Wilks' Lambda	6.04812	2,69	.004

Table 18

Cell Means and Standard Deviations for Female Subjects

Perception	Sexual Orientation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Self	Heterosexual	1.05750	2.16620
	Homosexual	0.35389	1.90370
Ideal Male	Heterosexual	-1.57750	1.86038
	Homosexual	-0.78028	1.40036
Ideal Female	Heterosexual	0.80222	1.78837
	Homosexual	-0.14861	1.37879

Table 19

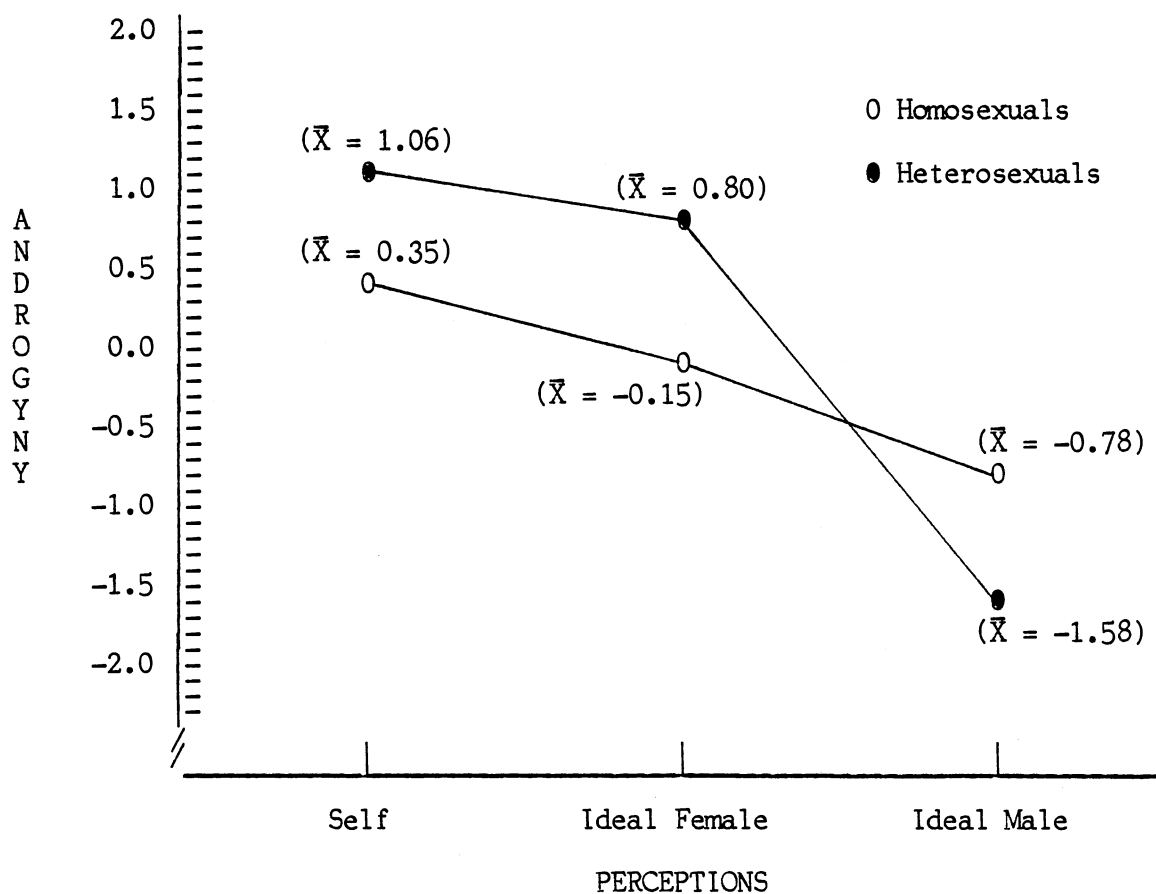
Results of Simple Contrast F-Tests for the Interaction Effect

Component	Test Name	F	D.F.	Sig. of F
Self vs. Ideal Female	Stepdown F	2.19484	1,70	.143
	Univariate F	2.19484	1,70	.143
Ideal Female vs. Ideal Male	Stepdown F	9.63079	1,69	.003
	Univariate F	11.41615	1,70	.001

A graph of the cell means is presented in Figure 2 to clarify the interaction. By inspection, as with the males, the homosexual females are consistently closer to 0.00 ("perfect" androgyny) across all perceptions than are the means of the heterosexual females.

Figure 2

Androgyny Scale Means of Females as Related to Sexual Orientation and Perceptions



Hypothesis 5. When measures of self, ideal male, and ideal female are combined, there will be no significant difference between heterosexual and homosexual females as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

As indicated in Table 17, the main effect for sexual orientation was not significant ($F_{1,70} = .90684$, $p = .344$). The finding is similar to the finding in the males' analysis. The heterosexual females tend to fall consistently in more extreme areas in relation to 0.00 than do the homosexual females. As a result, there was a failure to reject Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 6. When heterosexual and homosexual females are combined, there will be no significant difference among the perceptions of self, ideal male, and ideal female as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

According to the Wilks' Lambda Value ($\Lambda = .56671$) the Perceptions Effect was found significant ($F_{2,69} = 26.37743$, $p < .001$). Eta Squared accounted for 43% of the variance. In addition, the Simple Contrast components (Self vs. Ideal Female, and Ideal Female vs. Ideal Male) reached a significant level beyond the .001 level of significance, according to both the Roy-Bargman Stepdown F-Tests and the Univariate F-Tests (See Table 20).

These results suggest that the females as a whole from this sample, tend to have a significant perceptual difference between themselves and their same-sex ideal. Also, they have a significant perceptual difference between characteristics of the ideal female and the ideal male. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was rejected. However, care should be taken not to generalize to females in the general population since the

homosexual females were possibly in a disproportionate percentage (50%). From the Kinsey Data (Gebhard & Johnson, 1979) it is reported that greater than 89% of over 5,500 females in their sample denied any degree of sexual arousal when seeing individuals of the same sex.

Table 20

Results of the Simple Contrast F-Tests for the Perceptions Effect

Component	Test Name	F	D.F.	Sig. of F
Self vs. Ideal Female	Stepdown F	28.62119	1,70	.000
	Univariate F	28.62119	1,70	.000
Ideal Female vs. Ideal Male	Stepdown F	17.41997	1,69	.000
	Univariate F	33.87997	1,70	.000

Post Hoc comparisons. By use of specific comparisons of cell means possible answers were sought to the following questions: (a) Do homosexual females have less of a tendency to maintain a significant difference in their perceptions of themselves and the ideal female than do heterosexual females?; and (b) Do homosexual females have less of a tendency to maintain a significant difference between their perceptions

of the ideal female and ideal male than do heterosexual females?

The mean difference for the comparison between self and ideal female was not significant for either the heterosexual (self $\bar{X} = 1.06$; ideal female $\bar{X} = 0.80$) or the homosexual (self $\bar{X} = 0.35$; ideal female $\bar{X} = -0.15$) females. For the mean differences between the perceptions of the ideal female ($\bar{X} = 0.80$) and ideal male ($\bar{X} = -1.58$), the difference for heterosexual females was significant ($p < .05$), while the difference for the homosexual females regarding ideal female ($\bar{X} = -0.15$) and ideal male ($\bar{X} = -0.78$) was not significant (See Table 21). These findings suggest that homosexual females may be less likely to ascribe to significant differences in the roles of their ideal males and females than do heterosexual females. However, both homosexual and heterosexual females maintain a congruence between the perception of themselves and their ideal female.

Table 21

Summary of Post Hoc Comparisons for Female Subjects

Sexual Orientation	Differences between Cell Means	
	Self - Ideal Female	Ideal Male - Ideal Female
Heterosexual	0.25528	2.37972*
Homosexual	0.50250	0.63167

* $p < .05$

Comparisons to Bem's classifications. By taking Bem's classification system (Table 15), the female subjects's means were categorized according to this scheme and presented in Table 22. From this scheme it suggests that homosexual females perceive themselves and their ideal male and female as being androgynous. Heterosexual females, on the other hand, appear to perceive their ideal female as androgynous and to have a mild tendency toward sex-typing themselves and their ideal male. Again, neither of the "near masculine" and "near feminine" categories necessarily denote sex-typing nor androgyny.

Table 22

Categorization of Cell Means According to Bem's Classification System

Orientation	Perceptions		
	Self	Ideal Female	Ideal Male
Heterosexual	Near Feminine	Androgynous	Near Masculine
Homosexual	Androgynous	Androgynous	Androgynous

Qualitative Synopsis

From the 144 subjects there were 9 heterosexual females, 5 heterosexual males, 5 homosexual females, and 6 homosexual males that volunteered to be interviewed. However, by the time they were called for interviews only 5 heterosexual females, 2 heterosexual males, 3 homosexual females, and 3 homosexual males were obtained for the actual interview.

When the volunteers were asked which of the Perceptions that they had most trouble answering, the homosexual subjects invariably responded that it was the opposite sex. They then tended to mention that they just weren't attracted to the opposite sex or could not determine why that particular category was more difficult to describe. The heterosexuals tended to split their answers between ideal female and ideal male, and were more vague in describing their perceptions. For example, a heterosexual female responded that a ideal female was more difficult to describe, and then when asked "why?", she responded, "I don't know, a woman just is". However, another heterosexual female offered the observation that the "roles of women seem to be changing all the time. Different people just seem to expect different things from you."

When reporting who was most influential in their lives while growing up, most of the subjects said that it was one of the parents (usually the mother). Often the subjects said they were closer to their mother, or occasionally their father. One heterosexual female talked of the "love/hate" relationship with her mother, and how "domineering" her mother was, but then reported that her mother was the one who "always stands behind me". Consequently, it was primarily the relationship that appeared to be the important factor during the childhood years. When

asking about high school years to present, and the most influential figure, parents remained important for some, while others cited spouses or lovers who exerted significant influence. Again the relationship was emphasized.

Heterosexuals as a whole tended to believe that women and men saw the sex-roles of males and females differently. However, the homosexual subjects often pointed out their own perceived difference in the homosexual subculture. Namely, that there tended to be fewer differences between male and female roles in the homosexual society as opposed to society in general.

Summary

Presented in this chapter were the results of this study, which included the statistical analyses and interpretation of the data collected. Two separate 2 x 3 mixed model multivariate analyses of variance were performed, as well as, post hoc comparisons and comparisons to Bem's categories. Following these quantitative analyses, a summary was given of the qualitative inquiries given to subjects who also volunteered for telephone interviews.

For the males overall, the analysis resulted in failure to reject hypothesis 2. However, hypotheses 1 and 3 were rejected, which dealt with the Interaction (Perceptions x Sexual Orientation) and the Perceptions effect (Self, Ideal Male, and Ideal Female). Through graphing of the interaction, the heterosexual males appeared consistently further from 0.00 ("perfect" androgyny) on the Androgyny scale for all three perceptions than did the homosexual males. The post hoc comparisons suggested that heterosexual males tend to maintain a congruence between self and their same-sex ideal, while homosexual males

differed significantly in terms of the two perceptions. Nevertheless, both heterosexual and homosexual males maintained significant differences between their ideals for males and females. Analyzing these comparisons according to Bem's categories, heterosexual males perceive themselves as masculine sex-typed, and have a tendency toward sex-typing their ideals, where homosexual males maintain an androgynous perception of themselves and their ideal female, but a mild tendency for sex-typing their ideal male.

As with the Females, the analyses resulted in failure to reject hypothesis 5, while the hypotheses dealing with Perceptions and the interaction between Sexual Orientation and Perceptions (number 4 and 6) were rejected. By inspection of the graph of interaction, the means of the homosexual females were consistently closer to 0.00 ("perfect" androgyny) across all perceptions than were the means of the heterosexual females. By use of Post Hoc Comparisons, it appears that both heterosexual and homosexual women maintain congruence between perception of themselves and perception of their ideal female. However, a significant difference occurs between their perception of the ideal female and of the ideal male for heterosexual females. Homosexual females, however, did not have a significant difference between their perceptions of their male and female ideals.

Finally, by using Bem's classifications, homosexual females maintained androgynous ranges for all categories of perceptions. Heterosexual females perceived their ideal female as androgynous, but had a tendency to sex-type their self and ideal male perceptions.

From the qualitative inquiries, the homosexual individuals tended to point toward difficulties in describing the ideal of the opposite sex

since there was little attraction associated with the opposite sex. Whereas, the heterosexual subjects did not show as strong of a pattern of consistency. Influential figures early in life of the volunteers were usually a parent/guardian, while later in life spouses or love relationships became more prominent. Concerning perceptions of differences in the viewpoint of male and females on sex-roles, heterosexuals reported a belief of different vantage points between the sexes, while homosexual subjects frequently pointed out the decreased use of sex-roles in the gay community as opposed to society in general.

Chapter V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the differences between homosexual and heterosexual men and women in their sex-role perceptions of Self, Ideal Male, and Ideal Female. Subjects were from two state supported universities in the southwest. This study utilized homosexual and heterosexual individuals of both sexes. While all of the heterosexual subjects were obtained from various classes in the psychology or education departments, the homosexual subjects were obtained in classes, as well as, through various individuals serving as contacts for the researcher. All subjects were tested either in the classroom setting or in small groups.

All subjects were requested to take the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) three times consecutively with instructions to describe themselves on one of the inventories, to describe their Ideal Male on another, and their Ideal Female on still another one. Following the completion of the BSRI's, subjects completed a demographic data sheet. The items on the demographic data sheet were used to categorize subjects according to their gender and sexual orientation, as well as, for comparison of groups on age, church attendance, number of siblings, and marital status of parents/guardians. Finally, each subject was given the opportunity to

volunteer for participation in a telephone interview. The interview related to; (a) the influence of others on the individual during her or his childhood and during the present, (b) perceived conflicts in society about sex-roles, and (c) conflicts within the individual about sex-roles.

The variables used for analyses of the quantitative data from the BSRI's were the following: Independent variables - Sexual Orientation (Heterosexual, Homosexual) and Perceptions (Self, Ideal Male, Ideal Female); Dependent variable - BSRI Androgyny score. Gender (Male, Female) were taken into account by running separate analyses on males and females.

The six Null Hypotheses generated for this study were as follows:

Hypothesis 1: For males overall, there will be no significant interaction between sexual orientation, and perceptions of self and gender ideals as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

Hypothesis 2: When measures of self, ideal male, and ideal female are combined, there will be no significant difference between heterosexual and homosexual males as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

Hypothesis 3: When heterosexual and homosexual males are combined, there will be no significant difference among the perceptions of self, ideal male, and ideal female as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

Hypothesis 4: For females overall, there will be no significant interaction between sexual orientation and perceptions of self and gender ideals as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

Hypothesis 5: When measures of self, ideal male, and ideal

female are combined, there will be no significant difference between heterosexual and homosexual females as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

Hypothesis 6: When heterosexual and homosexual females are combined, there will be no significant difference among the perceptions of self, ideal male, and ideal female as measured by the BSRI Androgyny scale.

Two 2×3 mixed model ANOVA's were performed using a multivariate model to statistically analyze the data. Following the analyses, Post Hoc comparisons were done on selected means using Tukeys Test for Unconfounded Means. Furthermore, cell means were categorized according to Bem's classifications relating to sex-roles for comparison purposes. Finally, the subject responses to the follow-up telephone interview were examined.

Statistical significance was reached ($p < .05$) for four of the six hypotheses. Significant hypotheses were the two hypotheses concerning the interaction effect (Orientation \times Perception), and the two hypotheses concerning the Perception effect (Self, Ideal Male, Ideal Female). The two hypotheses concerning Sexual Orientation were nonsignificant ($p > .05$).

The post hoc comparisons suggested significant differences ($p < .05$) for the heterosexual males' perceptions of their ideal male vs. their ideal female, and for the homosexual males' perceptions of self vs. their ideal male, and for the perceptions of their ideal male vs. their ideal female. For the females, the only significant difference occurred in the heterosexual females' perceptions of their ideal female vs. their ideal male.

After classifying the cell means according to Bem's categories, the heterosexual males seemed to show the strongest tendency to categorize the perceptions according to sexual stereotypes. However, the homosexual males perceived themselves and their ideal female as being androgynous, while their ideal males tended to go in the direction of a masculine stereotype. The heterosexual females perceived themselves as leaning mildly toward a feminine stereotype, with stronger tendencies toward a masculine stereotype in terms of the ideal male. However, they perceived their ideal female as androgynous. In contrast, the homosexual females perceived themselves, as well as, their ideals as androgynous.

From the qualitative inquiries, the homosexual individuals tended to point toward difficulties in describing the ideal of the opposite sex since there was little attraction associated with the opposite sex. Whereas, the heterosexual subjects did not show as strong of a pattern of consistency. Influential figures early in life of the volunteers was usually a parent/guardian, while later in life spouses or love relationships became more important. Concerning perceptions of differences in the viewpoint of male and females on sex-roles, heterosexuals reported a belief of different vantage points between the sexes, while homosexual subjects frequently pointed out the decreased use of sex-roles in the gay community as opposed to society in general.

Conclusions

The results for the heterosexual males were similar to several previous studies (e.g., Gilbert, Deutsch, & Strahan, 1978; McKee & Sherriffs, 1959; Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Broverman, & Broverman, 1968), that compared males and females, namely, that males tended to show increased

stereotypes for themselves and their ideals. However, in this study, heterosexual males were compared to homosexual males. By inspection of the graph of the interaction, the heterosexual males were consistently more extreme in their perceptions. This result was supported by the qualitative questions, which suggested that homosexual society may influence its members to place less emphasis on sex-roles. The homosexual males, on the other hand tended to have a significant difference between their self perception and their ideal male perception, while the heterosexual males showed more congruence in these two perceptions. According to Bem's categories, there seemed to be a somewhat confusing picture of the homosexual males. The homosexual males did not seem to present as much consistence to their perceptions as the heterosexual males presented.

First of all, by mere definition (DeCecco, 1981), homosexual men are typically attracted sexually and emotionally to the same, rather than to the opposite sex. Therefore, this creates a stronger emotional loading for the ideal male category as opposed to the ideal female category. In support of this definition, Fisher (1978) suggests that homosexual males tend to show more indifference to females than any specific strong emotion. This was underscored by a homosexual male subject who asked the researcher, "Why do I have to describe the Ideal Female? I'm not interested in them. I don't know what to say." The same investment in the ideal female is not the same for heterosexual and homosexual males. Consequently, for females to fall in an androgynous category is not surprising.

Secondly, Bem (1981) states that society treats "...an exclusively heterosexual orientation as the sine qua non of adequate masculinity and

femininity" (p. 361). In other words, if a person is a homosexual, then the underlying structure for stereotyping self is weak. However, society and the family still has certain expectations for males and females. Whether these are reinforced through attitudes or through identification or a combination of both is unknown for sure. It could be that these expectations still affect to some degree the way homosexual males perceive an "Ideal Male". This would explain the differences that occur between the Ideal Male and Self, and also the Ideal Male and Ideal Female. Consequently, homosexual males may find themselves still somewhat emotionally affected by previous childhood experiences which tend to appear in the "love object" ideal (Ideal Male) despite not wanting to ascribe to these ideals for themselves.

Homosexual females as a group did not demonstrate any significant differences between Self and Ideal Female, and Ideal Female and Ideal Male. Furthermore, they were the group which categorized all their perceptions as being androgynous. They were, in other words, less willing to use sex-typing in their perceptions as compared to heterosexual females. Tripp (1976) describes heterosexual relationships as "dominant-submissive arrangements". Consequently, since homosexual females do not have the same emotional reasons to allow even some dominance by males as the heterosexual females do, they have increased motivation (along with the "sine qua non of masculinity and femininity" of Bem) to be rejecting of stereotyped gender ideals.

Recommendations

Considering the rejection of four of the six hypotheses, as well as the results of the post hoc comparisons, the following recommendations

are made concerning future research:

1. In future research, the use of "typical", "desirable", and "ideal" as categories for perceptions of males and females should be used. Homosexual individuals could have different emotional loadings for their ideals than heterosexual individuals do. For example, homosexual males may tend to see their ideal male in a romantic sense rather than as a prescriptive standard for themselves. Heterosexual men, on the other hand, may tend to perceive their ideal male as a prescriptive standard for themselves rather than as a romantic ideal. Therefore, by categorizing in several ways, some of the more subtle differences could be explored.

2. Another area of future research could use differences in homosexual males' perceptions (i.e., self vs. ideal male), and then correlate these differences with measurements of self-esteem. Since Rogers (1959) suggests that decreased differences between self and same-sex ideal correlates with increased amounts of self esteem, then exploration of this hypothesis should be done with homosexuals. This is because homosexuals might have increased confounding of the same-sex ideal with the romantic ideal. In other words, there are different meanings for homosexual individuals to attach to their same-sex ideals as compared to their heterosexual counterparts. In turn, this may affect the correlation between perception differences and self-esteem.

3. Another area of future research could be the comparison of perceptions of "significant others" (e.g., parents, romantic partners) to the subjects' perceptions. For example, a correlation could be done between parents' perceptions of ideals and their adult childrens' perceptions. These adult children could be divided into groups according

to their sexual orientation. This could help establish the amount of similarity/influence between individuals of differing orientations and specific significant others.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

QUANTITATIVE INSTRUMENTATION

You do NOT have to put your name or student ID # on the computer answer sheet.

BEM SEX ROLE INVENTORY

DIRECTIONS: Describe yourself. Mark the letter on the answer sheet that indicates how often each particular characteristic is true about YOURSELF.

(A) 1	(B) 2	(C) 3	(D) 4	(E) 5	(F) 6	(G) 7
Never or almost never true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually true	Always or almost always true

NOTE: Start with number "1" on answer sheet.

1. Self-reliant		21. Reliable		41. Warm	
2. Yielding		22. Analytical		42. Solemn	
3. Helpful		23. Sympathetic		43. willing to take a stand	
4. Defends own beliefs		24. Jealous		44. Tender	
5. Cheerful		25. has leadership abilities		45. Friendly	
6. Moody		26. Sensitive to the needs of others		46. Aggressive	
7. Independent		27. Truthful		47. Gullible	
8. Shy		28. willing to take risks		48. Inefficient	
9. Conscientious		29. Understanding		49. Acts as a leader	
10. Athletic		30. Secretive		50. Childlike	
11. Affectionate		31. Makes decisions easily		51. Adaptable	
12. Theatrical		32. Compassionate		52. Individualistic	
13. Assertive		33. Sincere		53. Does not use harsh language	
14. Flatterable		34. Self-sufficient		54. Unsystematic	
15. Happy		35. Eager to soothe hurt feelings		55. Competitive	
16. Strong personality		36. Conceited		56. Loves children	
17. Loyal		37. Dominant		57. Tactful	
18. Unpredictable		38. Soft-spoken		58. Ambitious	
19. Forceful		39. Likable		59. Gentle	
20. Feminine		40. Masculine		60. Conventional	

BEM SEX ROLE INVENTORY

DIRECTIONS: Describe an ideal male. Mark the letter on the answer sheet that indicates how often each particular characteristic is true about what YOU consider to be an IDEAL MALE.

(A) 1	(B) 2	(C) 3	(D) 4	(E) 5	(F) 6	(G) 7
Never or almost never true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually true	Always or almost always true

NOTE: Start with number "61" on answer sheet.

61. Self-reliant	81. Reliable	101. Warm
62. Yielding	82. Analytical	102. Solemn
63. Helpful	83. Sympathetic	103. willing to take a stand
64. Defends own beliefs	84. Jealous	104. Tender
65. Cheerful	85. Has leadership abilities	105. Friendly
66. Moody	86. Sensitive to the needs of others	106. Aggressive
67. Independent	87. Truthful	107. Gullible
68. Shy	88. willing to take risks	108. Inefficient
69. Conscientious	89. Understanding	109. Acts as a leader
70. Athletic	90. Secretive	110. Childlike
71. Affectionate	91. Makes decisions easily	111. Adaptable
72. Theatrical	92. Compassionate	112. Individualistic
73. Assertive	93. Sincere	113. Does not use harsh language
74. Flatterable	94. Self-sufficient	114. Unsystematic
75. Happy	95. Eager to soothe hurt feelings	115. Competitive
76. Strong personality	96. Conceited	116. Loves children
77. Loyal	97. Dominant	117. Tactful
78. Unpredictable	98. Soft-spoken	118. Ambitious
79. Forceful	99. Likable	119. Gentle
80. Feminine	100. Masculine	120. Conventional

BEM SEX ROLE INVENTORY

DIRECTIONS: Describe an ideal female. Mark the letter on the answer sheet that indicates how often each particular characteristic is true about what YOU consider to be an IDEAL FEMALE.

(A) 1	(B) 2	(C) 3	(D) 4	(E) 5	(F) 6	(G) 7
Never or almost never true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually true	Always or almost always true

NOTE: Start with number "121" on answer sheet.

121. Self-reliant	141. Reliable	161. Warm
122. Yielding	142. Analytical	162. Solemn
123. Helpful	143. Sympathetic	163. willing to take a stand
124. Defends own beliefs	144. Jealous	164. Tender
125. Cheerful	145. has leadership abilities	165. Friendly
126. Moody	146. Sensitive to the needs of others	166. Aggressive
127. Independent	147. Truthful	167. Gullible
128. Shy	148. Willing to take risks	168. Inefficient
129. Conscientious	149. Understanding	169. Acts as a leader
130. Athletic	150. Secretive	170. Childlike
131. Affectionate	151. Makes decisions easily	171. Adaptable
132. Theatrical	152. Compassionate	172. Individualistic
133. Assertive	153. Sincere	173. Does not use harsh language
134. Flatterable	154. Self-sufficient	174. Unsystematic
135. Happy	155. Eager to soothe hurt feelings	175. Competitive
136. Strong personality	156. Conceited	176. Loves children
137. Loyal	157. Dominant	177. Tactful
138. Unpredictable	158. Soft-spoken	178. Ambitious
139. Forceful	159. Likable	179. Gentle
140. Feminine	160. Masculine	180. Conventional

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

DIRECTIONS: Mark the letter on the answer sheet that corresponds with your response to each item. Begin with number "181" on your answer sheet.

181. Your sex:
(A) Female (B) Male
182. Your student classification:
(A) Undergraduate (B) Graduate
183. Your age:
(A) 18 or younger (E) 29-30
(B) 19-21 (F) 31-33
(C) 22-24 (G) 34 or older
(D) 25-27
184. Over the past year what has been your average church attendance?
(A) No attendance
(B) Infrequent (e.g., 4 times per year)
(C) Occasional (e.g., once a month)
(D) Frequent (e.g., 2 times a month)
(E) Regular (e.g., once a week)
185. Number of living sisters you have:
(A) None (E) Four
(B) One (F) Five
(C) Two (G) Six or more
(D) Three
186. Number of living brothers you have:
(A) None (E) Four
(B) One (F) Five
(C) Two (G) Six or more
(D) Three
187. Marital status of your parents or guardians during most of your public school years (over 6 years):
(A) Married or living as married
(B) Separated
(C) Divorced
(D) Never married and living separately
188. You would describe yourself as:
(A) heterosexual (C) Homosexual
(B) Bisexual
189. You feel sexual attraction:
(A) Exclusively for the opposite sex
(B) Mainly for the opposite sex and infrequently for the same sex
(C) Usually for the opposite sex but sometimes for the same sex
(D) As much for the same sex as for the opposite sex
(E) Usually for the same sex but sometimes for the opposite sex
(F) Mainly for the same sex and infrequently for the opposite sex
(G) Exclusively for the same sex

190. Your sexual fantasies are:
(A) Exclusively about the opposite sex
(B) Mainly about the opposite sex and infrequently about the same sex
(C) Usually about the opposite sex but sometimes about the same sex
(D) As frequently about the same sex as the opposite sex
(E) Usually about the same sex but sometimes about the opposite sex
(F) Mainly about the same sex and infrequently about the opposite sex
(G) Exclusively about the same sex
191. Your romantic affections are:
(A) Exclusively for the opposite sex
(B) Mainly for the opposite sex and infrequently for the same sex
(C) Usually for the opposite sex but sometimes for the same sex
(D) As frequently for the same sex as for the opposite sex
(E) Usually for the same sex but sometimes for the opposite sex
(F) Mainly for the same sex and infrequently for the opposite sex
(G) Exclusively for the same sex

Within two months the researcher will be interviewing participants by telephone to gather further information. This information will be kept confidential and will only involve first names. If you would be willing to be interviewed, then place your FIRST NAME ONLY in the spaces provided for the last name on the front of your answer sheet. Then place your telephone area code in the spaces provided for the student ID. Finally, place your telephone number in the spaces provided to the right of the student ID spaces (See example below). If you would rather NOT participate in a telephone interview, then leave the name spaces, etc., BLANK.

EXAMPLE.

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY BUREAU OF TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS			
LAST NAME	FIRST	COURSE NUMBER	Sec.
JOHN			
STUDENT ID			
4015 218-6534			

APPENDIX B

QUALITATIVE INSTRUMENTATION .

Questionnaire

1. (a) Which instructions (to describe yourself, ideal male, or ideal female) caused you the most difficulty in responding to the items?
 (b) What caused you that difficulty?
2. (a) What person(s) was most influential in your life while you were growing up?
 (b) How did they influence you?
 (c) Since the beginning of High School to the present, what person(s) has been most influential in your life?
 (d) How did they influence you?
3. (a) Do you think men and women see roles of males and females differently?
 (b) (If answered "yes") In what ways do men and women see male and female roles differently?
 (c) (If 3a is answered "yes") Why do you think men and women see male and female roles differently?

VITA²

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